



Farfán, M, Duarte, J, Fa, JE, Real, R and Vargas, JM (2017) Testing for errors in estimating bird mortality rates at wind farms and power lines. *Bird Conservation International*, 27 (3). pp. 431-439. ISSN 0959-2709

Downloaded from: <https://e-space.mmu.ac.uk/618626/>

Version: Accepted Version

Publisher: Cambridge University Press

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0959270916000460>

Please cite the published version

Bird Conservation International



CAMBRIDGE
UNIVERSITY PRESS

Testing for errors in estimating bird mortality rates at wind
farms and power lines

Journal:	Bird Conservation International
Manuscript ID	BCI-MP-2015-0099.R2
Manuscript Type:	Main Paper
Date Submitted by the Author:	14-Jun-2016
Complete List of Authors:	FARFÁN AGUILAR, MIGUEL ÁNGEL; UNIVERSIDAD DE MÁLAGA, ANIMAL BIOLOGY DUARTE, JESÚS; UNIVERSIDAD DE MÁLAGA, ANIMAL BIOLOGY Fa, John; Durrell Wildlife Conservation Trust, Conservation REAL, RAIMUNDO; UNIVERSIDAD DE MÁLAGA, ANIMAL BIOLOGY VARGAS YÁÑEZ, JUAN MARIO; UNIVERSIDAD DE MÁLAGA, ANIMAL BIOLOGY
Keywords:	carcass persistence, pigeon, quail, scavenger removal, southern Spain

SCHOLARONE™
Manuscripts

1 Testing for errors in estimating bird mortality rates at wind
2 farms and power lines

3

4 Miguel Ángel Farfán^{1,2} * Jesús Duarte^{1,2}; John E. Fa³, Real, R² & Juan Mario
5 Vargas²

6

7 ¹Biogea Consultores, Calle Navarro Ledesma 243, Portal 4, 3º C, 29010
8 Málaga, Spain.

9 ²Departamento de Biología Animal, Facultad de Ciencias, Universidad de
10 Málaga, Campus de Teatinos, 29071 Málaga, Spain.

11 ³Division of Biology and Conservation Ecology, School of Science and the
12 Environment, Manchester Metropolitan University, Manchester M1 5GD, UK &
13 Center for International Forestry Research (CIFOR), CIFOR Headquarters,
14 Bogor 16115, Indonesia

15

16 *Correspondence author: Miguel Ángel Farfán Aguilar. Calle Navarro Ledesma
17 243, Portal 4, 3º C, 29010 Málaga, Spain.
18 Email: mafarfan@biogea-consultores.com.

19

20 Running title: Mortality rates and scavengers

21 Abstract

22 Wind power, as an alternative to fossil fuels, is increasingly more common, and
23 is expanding worldwide. One of the main adverse impacts of wind farms is the
24 mortality of flying animals through collision with moving rotor blades and from
25 electrocutions on associated power lines. Avian mortality rates have been

26 estimated for wind farms from birds collected under turbines over varying time
27 intervals. However, scavengers may cause an underestimation of fatalities, if
28 dead birds are not monitored more frequently. In this paper, we test
29 experimentally, possible errors arising in the estimation of avian mortality rates
30 at wind farms and power lines caused by carcass removal by scavengers. We
31 used pigeon and quail carcasses placed under wind turbines of two different
32 wind farms and associated power line in South Spain to determine the
33 disappearance rate (in days) of dead birds by scavengers. Distances that
34 carcasses were taken by scavengers were determined by radio-tagging all dead
35 pigeons. We found significant statistical differences in carcass disappearance
36 rates between pigeons and quails and between wind farms and power lines.
37 However, there were no significant differences in disappearance rates between
38 habitats for pigeons or for quails. Only 40% of remain carcasses was found at a
39 distance less than 100 m from the points in which they were deposited. The
40 100% and 45% disappearance rate of quails and pigeons were on the third day
41 and on the fourteenth day, respectively. Taking into account that scavenging
42 losses is wind farm and power line specific we propose a method to correct the
43 estimation of the number of kills that could be replicated in any wind farm and
44 power line. By doing this, we can improve our understanding of the real impact
45 of wind structures on adjacent bird communities and adopt appropriate
46 measures to ensure their conservation.

47 Key-words: bird mortality, carcass persistence, pigeon, power line, quail,
48 scavenger removal, southern Spain, wind farm.

49 Introduction

50 Wind farms consist of numerous individual wind turbines that are
51 connected to the electric power transmission network. Since the 1980s wind
52 farms have become an economically attractive energy option (ITDG 2005),
53 often receiving substantial governmental support in many countries (Carrete et
54 al. 2009). As a result, wind farms have proliferated worldwide and this trend is
55 expected to continue (Ledec et al. 2011). In Spain, the proliferation of wind
56 farms has been unprecedented; the country is now the fifth producer of wind
57 energy in the world with an installed capacity of 22,988 MW distributed in 1,077
58 wind farms at the end of the year 2015 (<http://www.aeeolica.org>). Because the
59 country is an important migration flyway for many birds between Europe and
60 Africa, the potential negative impact of wind farms on these needs particular
61 study.

62 Wind farms cause negative environmental impacts on the landscape and
63 on birds and bats (May et al. 2015, Peste et al. 2015). The most obvious effect
64 on birds is deaths caused by collisions and electrocutions (Drewitt and
65 Langston 2008, Lucas et al. 2012). Wind power can also affect birds by
66 displacing them from their nesting sites, foraging areas, daily transit or migration
67 routes (Drewitt and Langston 2006). Death through collision can be substantial
68 for some species and populations may be negatively impacted (Johnson et al.
69 2002). Long-lived species, such as vultures, eagles and other birds of prey, are
70 more prone to undergo population declines if collision mortality increases
71 (Carrete et al. 2009, Sanz-Aguilar et al. 2015).

72 To evaluate the impact on birds of wind farms and power lines post-
73 construction, environmental authorities generally require wind developers to

74 monitor sites for one or two years after the start of operations. Although
75 monitoring may vary according to area, commonly, bird mortality is estimated by
76 directly counting avian collisions or body counts. There is no specific legislation
77 determining the frequency of monitoring to estimate bird mortality in wind farms
78 and power lines and this aspect is determined by the environmental authorities
79 for each individual case. Carcasses are usually counted at 1-2 week intervals
80 within a radius of 50-100 m around turbines or under power lines (Ferrer et al.
81 1991, Osborn et al. 2000, Lucas et al. 2004, Drewitt and Langston 2008, Farfán
82 et al. 2009, Lasch et al. 2010). There is no scientific evidence supporting this
83 monitoring frequency and monitoring surface.

84 Studies usually report relatively low bird mortality rates around wind farms
85 and power lines (Alonso and Alonso 1999, Erickson et al. 2001, Langston and
86 Pullan 2003, Percival 2005, Farfán et al. 2009, Gue et al. 2013). Such impact
87 levels may be an artefact of a mismatch between the location of wind farms and
88 power lines and bird concentrations (Carrete et al. 2012). But, it may also be a
89 result of the relatively low coverage of sites. Moreover, studies often report body
90 counts without taking into account habitat differences in carcass detectability,
91 search efficiency, search effort, or removal of carcasses by scavengers (Scott
92 et al. 1972, Morrison 2002, Erickson et al. 2005, Smallwood 2007, Drewitt and
93 Langston 2008, Carrete et al. 2009). However, these factors are sources of
94 error and variation in power lines and wind farm bird mortality studies (Gehring
95 et al. 2009, Longcore et al. 2012). Specifically, carcass removal by scavengers
96 is likely to give rise to considerable bias in bird mortality estimates since
97 removal of carrion is quick and prevalent in most habitats (Kostecke et al.
98 2001, Prosser et al. 2008, Ponce et al. 2010, Smallwood et al. 2010). In

99 particular, if the time interval between carcass searches is more than the
100 permanence of a carcass in an area, then observers will only detect a small
101 percentage of these.

102 Some authors have investigated persistence of carcasses under wind
103 farms or power lines. Ferrer et al. (1991) tested this by using rabbit carcasses
104 (*Oryctolagus cuniculus* L.) placed under pylons and power lines. These authors
105 showed that 70% of carcasses had disappeared one month after placement.
106 Lucas et al. (2008) also indicated that carcasses of large birds, equivalent in
107 size or larger than a black kite (*Milvus migrans* L.), could remain for months or
108 even years untouched by scavengers. However, there are limited data for small
109 to medium-size birds, such as kestrels, pigeons, or small passerines (Drewitt
110 and Langston 2008).

111 In this paper, we present a useful methodology to correct potential errors
112 arising in the estimation of avian mortality rates at wind farms and power lines
113 caused by carcass removal by scavengers. We examine the removal by
114 scavengers of pigeon (representing medium-sized birds) and quail carcasses
115 (representing small birds) at wind farms and power lines in southern Spain. We
116 quantified rates of permanence of the two different sized birds, and develop a
117 metric for estimating the mortality rate of stricken birds by species. In addition,
118 we radio-tagged carcasses to calculate dispersal distances caused by
119 scavengers.

120
121
122
123

124 Materials and methods

125 STUDY AREA

126 The study wind farms, “Puerto de Malaga” and “Sierra de Baños”, and their
127 associated power line, are located in Malaga province, southern Spain (UTM
128 30SUF38). These wind farms are contiguous, situated on a W-E running
129 mountain ridge. There are 13 wind turbines, evenly distributed along a
130 continuous row, at elevations ranging from 555 m and 727 m above sea level.
131 Wind turbines are placed about 150 m apart; total length 1,800 m. The power
132 line is located along the westernmost part of the wind farms and run N-S; total
133 length 23,000 m. We studied the 5-km stretch nearest the wind farms (Figure
134 1).

Figure 1

137 Vegetation in the study area is dominated by Mediterranean-type
138 scrubland. The most representative species are *Phlomis purpurea* Linnaeus,
139 *Phlomis lychnitis* Linnaeus, *Quercus coccifera* Linnaeus, *Chamaerops humilis*
140 Linnaeus, *Rosmarinus officinalis* Linnaeus, *Cistus albidus* Linnaeus, and *Ulex*
141 *parviflorus* Pourret. Along the eastern portion of the wind farms there are also
142 scattered Aleppo pine trees (*Pinus halepensis* Miller), while in the lower western
143 area, scrubland is mixed with cereals and olive groves.

144 The vertebrate community in the study area is represented by several bird
145 and mammal species (Martí and Del Moral 2003; Palomo et al. 2007). The main
146 scavengers are Common Raven (*Corvus corax*), red fox (*Vulpes vulpes*) and
147 Egyptian mongoose (*Herpestes ichneumon*) though feral cats and dogs are also
148 very common in the study area (pers. obs.).

149

150 FIELD METHODS

151 We determined carcass removal rates by scavengers between May and
152 September 2009. We placed a total of 57 bird carcasses [22 pigeons (*Columba*
153 *livia f. domestica*) and 35 quails (*Coturnix coturnix*)] at the wind farms, and
154 along the 5 km associated power line in nine different series (Table 1). All
155 carcasses were placed between 8 and 10 in the morning. At the wind farms,
156 carcasses were randomly placed around a maximum radius of 70 m from the
157 wind turbines but under pylons and power lines carcasses were randomly
158 distributed. Bird carcasses were spread far apart to avoid an increase in
159 removals caused by higher carcass density (Bevanger et al. 1994, Stevens et
160 al. 2011). We also placed carcasses in the two different habitats present in the
161 study area: crops and scrubland. As recommended by Smallwood (2007) all
162 carcasses were inspected daily. We estimated the Kaplan-Meier product limits
163 to measure the disappearance rate of carcasses (White and Garrott 1990).

164

165 Table 1.

166

167 Distances that carcasses were taken by scavengers were determined by
168 radio-tagging all dead pigeons with 27-g TW 3 brass collar transmitters
169 (Biotrack, UK). Radio-tagged birds were located using a GPS eTrex Vista Cx
170 (Garmin, USA), a portable Yagi-antenna, and a Yaesu VR-500 receiver
171 (Wagener Telemetrie, Germany). We used the homing-in technique as the
172 standard procedure for all locations (White and Garrott 1990). We calculated
173 the dispersal distance (in metres) of each carcass as the distance between the

174 point where the carcass was placed to the point where it was discovered or
175 radio transmitters found. These results allow us to know if there is a high or low
176 probability to find the remains of corpses in the usually surveyed surface once
177 scavengers have eaten the carcass.

178

179 STATISTICAL APPROACH

180 We used a GLM with Poisson error distribution and a log-link function
181 model (Crawley 1993) to analyze whether factors, experimental carcass, i.e.
182 type of carcass (quails vs pigeons), the habitat available (crops vs scrubland)
183 and the placement site (wind-power plant vs power line) affected the
184 permanence time (in days) -the dependent variable-.

185 All mean values of analyzed parameters are given with their standard
186 error.

187

188 To calculate the mortality rate linked to the studied wind farms and
189 associated power line, we employed the following equation:

190

$$191 \quad \text{EMR} = \frac{\text{OCB}}{\text{ED}} \quad (1)$$

192

193 where EMR is the estimated daily mortality rate, OCB is the observed number
194 of carcasses, and ED is the number of equivalent days, i.e. the number of days
195 in which the collision of birds yielded the observed carcasses if the
196 disappearance rate was zero. ED was calculated adding the proportion of daily
197 persistence for quail and pigeon carcasses, respectively.

198 From equation (1) it follows that estimated mortality during a specific
199 period of time results from EMR multiplied by any number of days between
200 successive monitoring days.

201

202 BIAS IN ESTIMATING BIRD MORTALITY

203 We used disappearance rate and dispersal distances of pigeons obtained
204 in this study to show that current monitoring schemes undertaken by the
205 environmental authorities, at a frequency of 1-2 weeks and over a surface of 50-
206 100 m, may underestimate mortalities of medium-sized birds.

207

208 Results

209 Radio-tagging revealed that only 40% of the deposited carcasses was
210 found at a distance of <100 m from the points in which they were placed, while
211 most carcasses (60%) were taken distances of >100 m.

212 The GLM model showed a high fit to the Poisson distribution (0.931) and
213 had an acceptable percentage of deviance explained (71.4%). The model
214 revealed that variables with the highest explanatory power within the model
215 (highest Wald statistic values) were experimental carcasses and the placing site
216 (Table 2). Both variables had a significant effect on the permanence time
217 whereas the habitat did not. Permanence time was positively affected by
218 experimental carcass type, being higher for pigeon than quail carcasses
219 (pigeons: 4.6 ± 0.7 days; quails: 1.5 ± 0.3 days). The placement site also
220 negatively affected permanence time. Permanence was lower in the wind-power
221 plant than in the power line regardless of experimental carcass type (wind-

power plant: pigeons: 4.1 ± 1.1 days and quails: 1.0 ± 0.3 days; power line:
pigeons: 5.1 ± 1.0 days and quails: 2.1 ± 0.5 days).

224

225 Table 2

226

227 The disappearance rate of quails was 55% on the first day, 85% on the
228 second day, and 100% on the third day. Disappearance rate was slower for
229 pigeons, 10% on the three first days and 45% until fourteenth day (Figure 2).

230 Figure 2

231

232 Using the disappearance rates for quails and pigeons, the daily mortality
233 rate was estimated as:

234 1. - Quails:

$$235 \text{ED}_{\text{quails}} = 1.00 + 0.45 + 0.16 = 1.61$$

$$236 \text{EMR} = \frac{\text{OCB}}{1.61}$$

237 2. - Pigeons:

$$238 \text{ED}_{\text{pigeons}} = 1.00 + 0.89 + 0.89 + 0.89 + 0.55 + 0.55 + 0.55 + 0.55 + 0.55 + 0.55 +$$

$$239 0.55 = 7.52$$

$$240 \text{EMR} = \frac{\text{OCB}}{.52}$$

241

242 At both 7 and 14 days the proportion of pigeons remaining in the sites
243 where they were deposited was 55% (12 carcasses) but the remaining 45% (10
244 carcasses) were dispersed by scavengers. Scavengers displaced three
245 carcasses <50 m, and one other to a distance of 50 - 100 m. Monitoring with a

246 frequency of 7-14 days and a sampled surface area of 50 and 100 m
247 underestimated bird mortality by 31.8% and 27.3%, respectively.

248

249 Discussion

250 Most previous studies on the impact of wind farms on birds have been
251 conducted to assess the most obvious effect of wind farms on birds, mortality
252 caused by collisions, but limited to recording species found dead under turbine
253 blades (Martínez-Abrain et al. 2012). Small birds and bats may have been
254 overlooked in previous carcass searches (Kunz et al. 2007) due to cryptic
255 coloration, small body size, steep topography, or thick vegetation, among other
256 factors. The practice of collecting dead birds and those injured by collisions at
257 wind farms is considered to underestimate fatalities due to air currents blowing
258 carcasses away from the collision site, and to an unknown impact of
259 scavengers removing carcasses (Desholm et al. 2006).

260 We show in this paper, that the reported low mortality rates currently used
261 to dispel any concerns about wind energy may be seriously biased due to the
262 removal of carcasses by scavengers. We demonstrate that, at least in spring
263 and summer, the disappearance rate of dead animals is greater than the search
264 intervals proposed usually by environmental authorities (periods of 7-14 days),
265 hence the recommended monitoring will underestimate the number of dead
266 animals. Our results, alongside those of other authors suggest that scavengers
267 remove carcasses in a few days. For example, Prosser et al. (2008) found
268 removal rates of up to 32% (winter) and 91% (summer) within four days of
269 placement, and Kostecke et al. (2001) found scavenging rates of up to 66%
270 within five days. Similarly, Ponce et al. (2010) showed that up to 66.7% of small

271 birds (represented by quails) and 85.7% of very small birds (represented by
272 quail halves) were removed two days after placement. Smallwood et al. (2010)
273 found scavengers removed 0% and 67% of large-bodied raptor carcasses in
274 winter and summer respectively, within a period of 15 days. Finally, Urquhart et
275 al. (2015) showed that 85% of Buzzard (*Buteo buteo*) carcasses remained for a
276 period of 95 days. These results show that the recommended monitoring period
277 of 7-14 days for carcass search surveys is insufficient, especially when
278 recording the impact of small-sized birds. We show in our study that scavengers
279 remove quails (representing small birds) faster than they remove pigeons
280 (representing medium-size birds). Other authors have also found that
281 scavengers remove small birds in very short periods of time (Kerlinger et al.
282 2000, Lekuona and Ursúa 2007, Ponce et al. 2010, Stevens et al. 2011), while
283 raptor carcasses persist longer than non-raptors (Smallwood, 2007; Urquhart et
284 al., 2015).

285 Lower permanence of the experimental carcasses in the wind-power
286 plants than in the power line obtained in this study can be explained by the
287 differential abundance of scavengers at both sites. Feral cats and dogs are
288 more frequent in the wind farms (pers. obs.), although we have not done
289 specific analysis to determine significant differences in abundance and our
290 results could be due to this factor and others different.

291 Our results show that there was a high proportion of carcasses dispersed
292 at distances of >100 m. These observations suggests that it is highly unlikely for
293 monitors employed by environmental authorities to discover dead animals within
294 the currently used radius of 50-100 m around turbines and power lines. We

295 argue that the current procedure will underestimate bird mortality by wind farms
296 and power lines.

297 This study also shows that monitoring bird mortality every 7-14 days and
298 around a 50-100 m radius will underestimate medium-sized bird mortality, as
299 shown by our pigeon data. Although we did not radio-tagged quails,
300 representing small birds, the disappearance rate indicates that for quails,
301 monitoring every 7-14 days and within a 50-100 m radius, severely
302 underestimates small bird mortality.

303 Most research on fatalities at onshore wind farms and power lines rely on
304 carcass searches, but because this method is limited it has to be assumed that
305 the number of carcasses reported represents only a minimum number of actual
306 fatalities (Drewitt and Langston 2008). If this is the case, and we also take into
307 account that wind farms and associated power lines have proliferated
308 worldwide, then there is a pressing need to improve the methods used in fatality
309 studies, determine the real impact of these structures on flying fauna and
310 ensure the conservation of the most vulnerable species.

311 We argue strongly that a key challenge in wildlife mortality surveys is,
312 among other factors, the control of errors caused by not taking into account the
313 impact of scavengers and the development of protocols to minimize bias.
314 Taking into account that scavenging losses is wind farm and power line specific,
315 a first step would be to correct the estimation of the number of fatalities at each
316 wind farm and associated power line. In the present study we propose a method
317 to do it that could be replicated in any wind farm and power line differing in
318 habitats, bird communities and scavenger communities. If the correction of the
319 number of fatalities were not applied, increasing search efforts could minimize

320 biases. Environmental authorities must demand shorter periods for search
321 surveys as the current recommended period of 7-14 days is clearly insufficient.
322 As we discussed above, scavenging losses is wind farm and power line specific
323 but it is generalised that persistence of small and medium size non-raptor birds
324 is shortest. Thus, according to our results, and in line with Kostecke et al.
325 (2001), we consider it reasonable to recommend that in spring and summer,
326 when a higher proportion of carcasses are likely to be removed by scavengers
327 (Prosser et al. 2008, Ponce et al. 2010), carcass searches should be
328 undertaken daily for small birds and in periods of three days for medium-sized
329 birds. This frequency of carcass search will improve the estimates of mortality
330 especially for small and medium-sized non-raptors.

331

332 Acknowledgements

333 We thank to Gonzalo Zubieta and IBERDROLA, the property developer of
334 “Sierra de Baños” and “Puerto de Málaga” wind farms respectively, for allowing
335 us to realise the present study in their properties.

336 This work has been partially supported by the Spanish Ministry of Agriculture,
337 Food and Environment, Spanish National Parks Network, project 1098/2014.

338 We are grateful to Jose Tella and two anonymous reviewers for their insightful
339 comments on our paper.

340

341 References

342 Alonso, J. A. and Alonso, J. C. (1999) Collision of birds with overhead
343 transmission lines in Spain. Pp. 57-82 in G. F. E. Janss and M. Ferrer, eds.
344 Birds and powerlines. Collision, electrocution and breeding. Madrid: Quercus.

- 345 Bevanger, K., Bakke, O. and Engen, S. (1994) Corpse removal experiment with
346 Willow Grouse (*Lagopus lagopus*) in power-line corridors. *Ecology of Birds* 16:
347 597-607.
- 348 Carrete, M., Sánchez-Zapata, J. A., Benítez, J. R., Lobón, M. and Donázar, J.
349 A. (2009) Large scale risk-assessment of wind-farms on population viability of a
350 globally endangered long-liver raptor. *Biol. Conserv.* 142: 2954-2961.
- 351 Carrete, M., Sánchez-Zapata, J. A., Benítez, J. R., Lobón, M., Montoya, F. and
352 Donázar, J. A. (2012) Mortality at wind-farms is positively related to large-scale
353 distribution and aggregation in griffon vultures. *Biol. Conserv.* 145: 102-108.
- 354 Crawley, M. J. (1993) *GLIM for ecologists*. Blackwell, London.
- 355 Desholm, M. A., Fox, D., Beasley, P. D. L. and Kahlert, J. (2006) Remote
356 techniques for counting and estimating the number of bird–wind turbine
357 collisions at sea: a review. *Ibis* 148: 76-89.
- 358 Drewitt, A. L. and Langston, R. H. W. (2006) Assessing the impacts of wind
359 farms on birds. *Ibis* 148: 29-42.
- 360 Drewitt, A. L. and Langston, R. H. W. (2008) Collision effects of wind-power
361 generators and other obstacles on birds. *Annals New York Academy Sciences*
362 1134: 223–266.
- 363 Erickson, W. P., Johnson, G. D., Strickland, M. D., Young, D. P., Sernka, K. J.
364 and Good R. E. (2001). *Avian Collisions with Wind Turbines: A Summary of*
365 *Existing Studies and Comparisons to Other Sources of Avian Collisions*
366 *Mortality in the United States*. Resource Document, National Wind Coordinating
367 Committee (NWCC), Washington, DC.
- 368 Erickson, W. P., Johnson, G. D. and Young, D. P. (2005) A summary and
369 comparison of bird mortality from anthropogenic causes with an emphasis on

- 370 collision. USDA Forest Service General Technical Report PSW-GTR-191 (pp.
371 1029–1042).
- 372 Farfán, M. A., Vargas, J. M., Duarte, J. and Real, R. (2009) What is the impact
373 of wind farms on birds? A case of study in southern Spain. *Biodivers. Conserv.*
374 18: 3743-3758.
- 375 Ferrer, M., de la Riva, M. and Castroviejo, J. (1991) Electrocution of raptors on
376 power lines in southwestern Spain. *J. Field Ornithol.* 62: 181-190.
- 377 Gehring, J., Kerlinger, P. and Manville, A. M. (2009) Communication towers,
378 lights, and birds: successful methods of reducing the frequency of avian
379 collisions. *Ecol. Appl.* 19: 505–514.
- 380 Gue, C. T., Walker, J. A., Mehl, K. R., Gleason, J. S., Stephens, S. E., Loesch,
381 C. R., Reynolds, R. E. and Goodwin, B. J. (2013) The effects of a large-scale
382 wind farm on breeding season survival of female Mallards and Blue-Winged
383 Teal in the Prairie Pothole Region. *J Wildlife Manage* 77(7): 1360-1371.
- 384 ITDG (Intermediate Technology Development Group) (2005) Practical action –
385 Wind electricity generation. Warwickshire, UK: Schumacher Centre for
386 Technology and Development.
- 387 Johnson, G. D., Erickson, W. P., Strickland, M. D., Shepherd, M. F., Shepherd,
388 D. A. and Sarappo, S. A. (2002) Collision mortality of local and migrant birds at
389 a large-scale wind-power development on Buffalo Ridge, Minnesota. *Wildlife*
390 *Soc. B.* 30: 879–887.
- 391 Kerlinger, P., Curry, R. and Ryder, R. (2000) Ponequin Wind Energy Project:
392 Reference Site Avian Study. National Renewable Energy Laboratory,
393 NREL/SR-500-27546.

- 394 Kostecke, R. M., Linz, G. M. and Bleier, W. J. (2001) Survival of avian
395 carcasses and photographic evidence of predators and scavengers. *J. Field*
396 *Orinthol.* 73: 439–447.
- 397 Kunz, T. H., Arnett, E. B., Erickson, W. P., Hoar, A. R., Johnson, G. D., Larkin,
398 R. P., Strickland, M. D., Thresher, R. W. and Tuttle, M. D. (2007) Ecological
399 impacts of wind energy development on bats: questions, research needs, and
400 hypotheses. *Front. Ecol. Environ.* 5: 315–324.
- 401 Langston, R. H. W. and Pullan, J. D. (2003) Wind farms and birds: an analysis
402 of the effects of wind farm on birds, and guidance on environmental assessment
403 criteria and site selection issues. Report written by Birdlife International on
404 behalf of the Bern Convention. Council Europe Report T-PVS/inf.
- 405 Lasch, U., Zerbe, S. and Lenk, M. (2010) Electrocution of raptors at power lines
406 in Central Kazakhstan. *Waldökologie, Landschaftsforschung und Naturschutz* 9:
407 95-100.
- 408 Ledec G., Rapp, K. & Aiello, R. (2011) Greening the wind: environmental and
409 social considerations for wind power development. *World Bank Studies*,
410 Washington.
- 411 Lekuona, J. and Ursúa, C. (2007) Avian mortality in wind power plants of
412 Navarra (Northern Spain). Pp. 177-192 in M. Lucas, G. F. E. Janss and M.
413 Ferrer, eds. *Birds and Wind Farms: Risk Assessment and Mitigation*. Madrid:
414 Quercus.
- 415 Longcore, T., Rich, C., Mineau, P., MacDonald, B., Bert, D. G., Sullivan, L. M.,
416 Mutrie, E., Gauthreaux Jr. S. A., Avery, M. L., Crawford, R. L., Manville II, A. M.,
417 Travis, E. R. and Drake, D. (2012) An estimate of avian mortality at

- 418 communication towers in the United States and Canada. Plos ONE 7(4):
419 e34025. doi:10.1371/journal.pone.0034025.
- 420 Lucas, M., Janss, G. F. E. and Ferrer, M. (2004) The effects of a wind farm on
421 birds in a migration point: The Strait of Gibraltar. Biodivers. Conserv. 13: 395–
422 407.
- 423 Lucas, M., Ferrer, M., Bechard, M.J. & Muñoz, A.R. (2012) Griffon vulture
424 mortality at wind farms in southern Spain: distribution of fatalities and active
425 mitigation measures. Biological Conservation 147: 184–189.
- 426 Lucas, M., Janss, G. F. E., Whitfield, D. P. and Ferrer, M. (2008) Collision
427 fatality of raptors in wind farms does not depend on raptor abundance. J. Appl.
428 Ecol. 45: 1695–1703.
- 429 Martí, R. and Del Moral, J. C. (Eds.) (2003) Atlas de las Aves Reproductoras de
430 España. Dirección General de Conservación de la Naturaleza-Sociedad
431 Española de Ornitología. Madrid.
- 432 Martínez-Abraín, A., Tavecchia, G., Regan, H. M., Jiménez, J., Surroca, M. and
433 Oro, D. (2012) Effects of wind farms and food scarcity on a large scavenging
434 bird species following an epidemic of bovine spongiform encephalopathy. J.
435 Appl. Ecol. 49: 109-117.
- 436 May, R., Reitan, O., Bevanger, K, Lorentsen, S.H. & Nygård, T. (2015)
437 Mitigating wind-turbine induced avian mortality: Sensory, aerodynamic and
438 cognitive constraints and options. Renewable and Sustainable Energy Reviews
439 42: 170-181.
- 440 Morrison, M. (2002) Searcher bias and scavenging rates in bird/wind energy
441 studies. NREL/SR-500-30876. 1617 Cole Boulevard, Golden, Colorado 80401-
442 3393: National Renewable Energy Laboratory.

- 443 Osborn, R. G., Higgins, K. F., Usgaard, R. E., Dieter, C. D. and Neiger, R. D.
444 (2000) Bird mortality associated with wind turbines at the Buffalo Ridge Wind
445 Resource Area, Minnesota. *Am. Midl. Nat.* 143: 41-52.
- 446 Palomo, L. J., Gisbert, J. and Blanco, J. C. (2007) *Atlas y Libro Rojo de los*
447 *Mamíferos Terrestres de España*. Dirección General para la Biodiversidad-
448 SECEM-SECEMU, Madrid, 588 pp.
- 449 Percival, S. (2005) Birds and wind farms: what are the real issues? *Brit. Birds*
450 98: 194–204.
- 451 Peste, F., Paula, A., da Silva, L.P., Bernardino, J., Pereira, P., Mascarenhas,
452 M., Costa, H., Vieira, J., Bastos, C., Fonseca, C. & Pereira, M.J.R. (2015) How
453 to mitigate impacts of wind farms on bats? A review of potential conservation
454 measures in the European context. *Environmental Impact Assessment Review*
455 51: 10-22.
- 456 Ponce, C., Alonso, J. C., Argandoña, G., García Fernández, A. and Carrasco,
457 M. (2010) Carcass removal by scavengers and search accuracy affect bird
458 mortality estimates at power lines. *Anim. Conserv.* 13: 603-612.
- 459 Prosser, P., Nattrass, C. and Prosser, C. (2008) Rate of removal of bird
460 carcasses in arable farmland by predators and scavengers. *Ecotox. Environ.*
461 *Safe.* 71: 601–608.
- 462 Sanz-Aguilar, A., Sánchez-Zapata, J. A., Carrete, M., Benítez, J. R., Ávila, E.,
463 Arenas, R. And Donázar, J. A. (2015) Action on multiple fronts, illegal poisoning
464 and wind farm planning, is required to reverse the decline of the Egyptian
465 vulture in Southern Spain. *Biol. Conserv.* 187: 10-18.
- 466 Scott, R. E., Roberts, L. J. and Cadbury, C. J. (1972) Bird deaths from power
467 lines at Dungeness. *Brit. Birds* 65: 273–286.

- 468 Smallwood, K. S. (2007) Estimating wind turbine-caused bird mortality. J.
469 Wildlife. Manage. 71: 2781–2791.
- 470 Smallwood, K. S., Bell, D. A., Snyder, S. A. and Didonato, J. E. (2010) Novel
471 scavenger removal trials increase wind turbine- caused avian fatality estimates.
472 J. Wildlife. Manage. 74: 1089-1096.
- 473 Stevens, B., Reese, K. P. and Connelly, J. W. (2011) Survival and detectability
474 bias of avian fence collision surveys in Sagebrush steppe. J. Wildlife. Manage.
475 75: 437-449.
- 476 Urquhart, B., Hulka, S. and Duffy, K. (2015) Game birds do not surrogate for
477 raptors in trials to calibrate observed raptor collision fatalities. Bird Study.
478 <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00063657.2015.1053751>
- 479 White, G. C. and Garrott, R. A. (1990) Analysis of wildlife radio-tracking data.
480 London: Academic.

481 **Table legends**

482 Table 1. Distribution of pigeons and quails placed in the two wind farms and
483 power line. The date and habitat used in the nine series are shown.

484 Table 2. Results of the GLM model analysing factors affecting the permanence
485 time (in days) of two types of carcasses. P values are considered significant at
486 $P < 0.05$ while ns refer to non-significant values. Factors included in the model
487 were type of carcass (1, pigeon or 2, quail), type of placing site (1, wind-power
488 plant or 2, power line) and type of habitat (1, crops or 2, scrubland).

489

490

491 Table 1

Date	Pigeons		Quails		Habitat
	Wind farm	Power line	Wind farm	Power line	
19/05/2009		3			crop (3)
01/06/2009		3			scrubland (3)
11/06/2009		4			crop (2), scrubland (2)
06/07/2009	6				crop (4), scrubland (2)
14/07/2009	4				crop (1), scrubland (3)
04/08/2009	2				scrubland (2)
24/08/2009			5	5	crop (4), scrubland (6)
07/09/2009			7	8	crop (7), scrubland (8)
25/09/2009			5	5	crop (5), scrubland (5)

492

493

494 Table 2

Source of variation	B ± SE	d.f.	Wald	P
Experimental carcass	1.099 ± 0.1697	1	41.950	< 0.001
Placing site	-0.402 ± 0.1693	1	5.627	0.018
Habitat	0.054 ± 0.1693	1	0.102	0.749

495

496

497 **Figure legends**

498 Figure 1. Location of the study area. X: geographic reference (36° 51' 9"N; 4°
499 49' 12"W)

500 Figure 2. Kaplan-Meier disappearance functions for pigeon and quail carcasses
501 experimentally deposited under wind farms and power line in the study area.

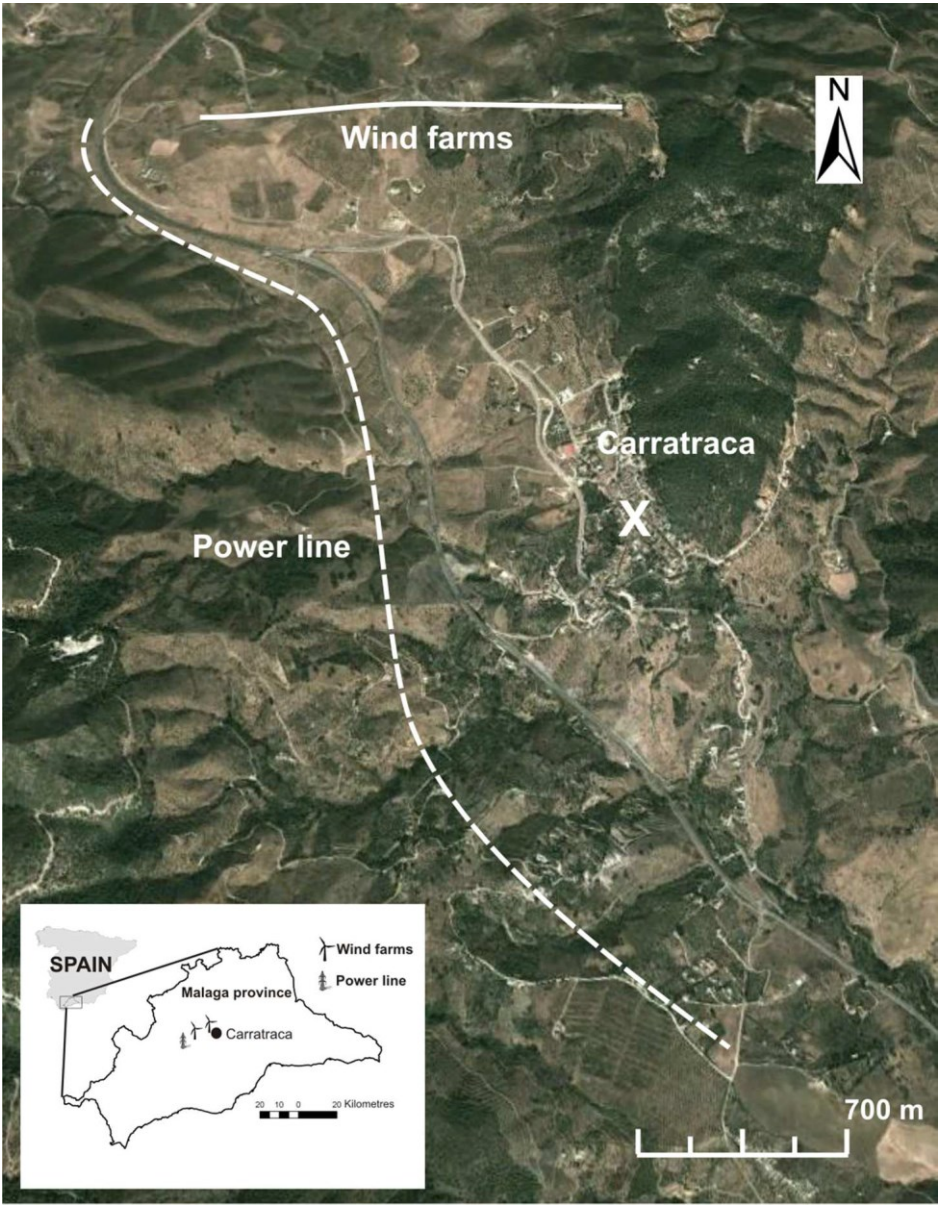


Figure 1. Location of the study area. X: geographic reference (36° 51' 9"N; 4° 49' 12"W)
93x119mm (300 x 300 DPI)

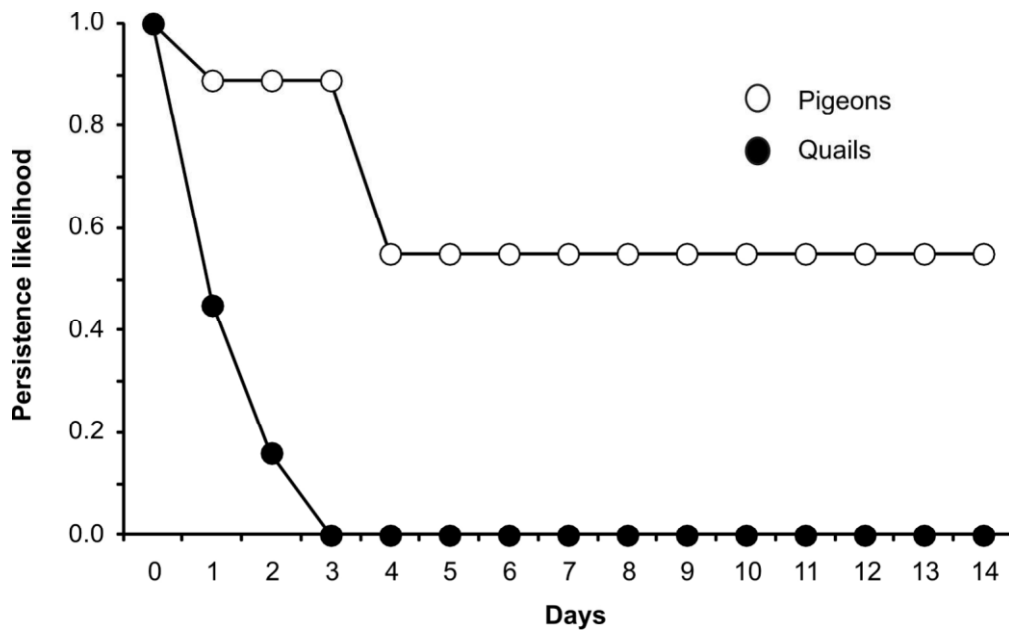


Figure 2. Kaplan-Meier disappearance functions for pigeon and quail carcasses experimentally deposited under wind farms and power line in the study area.
218x134mm (300 x 300 DPI)